

The **Journal of Educational Sociology**

A Magazine of Theory and Practice

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The Journal of Educational Sociology

A Magazine of Theory and Practice

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The JOURNAL of EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

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EDITORIAL

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY has entered well upon its sixth year but, as has already been announced, under new management. The department of educational sociology, of the School of Education of New York University, has assumed full responsibility for the management as well as the editorial policy. Therefore the entire responsibility for THE JOURNAL lies in our hands. We shall thus welcome criticism and suggestions at all times. If you like THE JOURNAL, tell us about it and if, on the other hand, you feel that we can make a better JOURNAL we shall be just as glad to hear from you.

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We shall be particularly interested to hear from our readers about our policy of presenting special numbers. During the coming year, in addition to the September number devoted to the Boys' Club Study and the October number dealing with College Education, there will be others on the Motion Picture and Education, Special Education, Juvenile Delinquency and Education, and Educational Psychology versus Educational Sociology. We shall be interested to know whether you like the special numbers better than the regular issues.

Since we now control THE JOURNAL in its entirety we have the freedom we have not had before to make THE JOURNAL what we would like. In September 1927 we wrote:

In venturing upon a new enterprise, and especially in the publication of a new journal for educators, it is important to make sure that such an enterprise will be worth the effort of those who are committing themselves to it and worth the time of its contemplated readers. With the numerous journals available it is highly pertinent to examine meticulously the field to ascertain whether a new journal is necessary. Nothing short of necessity warrants the publication of a new magazine devoted to the theory and practice of education. Is there such warrant for THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY?

At that time we answered this question in the affirmative and gave as our reason that, while there are a number of magazines that accept articles devoted to sociology in its application to education, no one magazine is devoted exclusively to that field. We asserted that the sociological aspect of education cannot be properly represented without the emphasis that will come from a journal devoted to educational sociology. The five years of our experience have confirmed us in our judgment, and we are now entering upon a new period with the hope of retaining the friends who have coöperated with us in the enterprise as it has developed so far and with the hope of making many new friends in the future.

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"Related and Subsidiary Studies" on page 173 is an important part of the Boys' Club Study (*see* the September 1932 number). It was omitted from that number for lack of space.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND THE PROBLEM OF CRIME PREVENTION

NATHAN PEYSER

Education is the process of effecting changes in human behavior. Changes result from but one phenomenon, from the reaction of the individual to stimuli in his environment. All that the teacher, parent, and minister can do is arrange situations, so as to induce suitable responses and thus develop desirable patterns of behavior. Good behavior is wholesome, satisfactory adjustment, socially approved interaction of the human organism and its environment; delinquent conduct is defective adjustment, psychologically similar in its causation to acceptable behavior.

The development of human conduct is complicated beyond the possibility of precise analysis; external stimuli are multiple in kind and infinite in number, while internal organic and psychological factors are oftentimes intricately interassociated and unpredictably variable in nature. Consequently, we cannot set up a single formula descriptive of the process. We cannot hope to reach a single explanation for any species of behavior aberration or to set up a corrective formula that will inevitably solve any problem at hand.

Misconduct is one of the overt expressions of personal maladjustment. Seen from its broadest angle the problem of crime prevention is the problem of education. At the outset, however, it must be recognized that the school is but one of the many situations confronting the child in the course of his growth. The home, the street, the theater, the movie house, the newspaper, the church, and the library—all play their parts in shaping his attitudes, molding his habits, fashioning his ideals, and forming his interests and appreciations. In fact, from both the standpoints of lateness of school admission, and the small

amount of time spent by the child in school, the latter institution is in a position not at all advantageous with respect to character and personality development. Dean Withers has told us that less than 7 per cent of the total time at the disposal of the child is spent in school under the eye of the teacher. Often the efforts of the teacher are rendered futile because of the more protracted conditioning of an unfortunate home environment or of a vicious out-of-school companionship.

The school does not receive the child initially until he is five, six, or seven years of age. Every psychiatrist, regardless of the school to which he may belong, will attest the supreme importance of the first five or six years of the child's life in determining his attitudes, repressions, and conflicts, which often prove to be the root causes and impulsions of future misconduct. Freud says, "Educators must transfer the main emphasis in education to the earliest years of childhood. The little human being is frequently a finished product in his fourth or fifth year and only gradually reveals in later years what lies buried in him." The responsibility for infantile inhibitions and compulsions, for early conditioned attitudes and responses, cannot be placed at the door of the school.

Nevertheless, the school, as the only agency consciously and deliberately organized by the State for the education of its citizenship, must assume its share of the social obligation for the proper moral development of the young. From the practical standpoint these questions immediately arise: What can the school do to mold the characters of its children? What activities shall it introduce to realize its objectives? What attitudes shall it adopt? What procedures shall it follow? What practices shall it avoid as prejudicial to the well-being of its pupils? What can the teachers and supervisors do to safeguard the personalities of the children from the internal maladjustments that find their manifestation in neuroses, psychoses, and delinquencies?

It would be of no value whatsoever to attempt to indicate specific activities that should be introduced or to suggest particular devices to accomplish these purposes. All that should be recommended are general objectives and procedures that must find specific, concrete expression in terms of the special problems of each school and of the particular circumstances in each case.

Teachers must first of all become highly conscious of their obligations with reference to the spiritual life of the child. Character building should not be relegated to a subordinate position nor regarded as an accidental factor in the school program. The attention of the teachers must be fixated, not upon subjects, subject matter, and scholastic results, but rather upon children as human beings, upon their health, their happiness, their developing personalities, and their problems of adjustment to life, to reality. Teachers must set up as conscious goals the conservation of the social and personal integrity of their children. Crime and other forms of maladjustment are often escape and substitute mechanisms, compensations for inferiority conflicts; they are expressions of emotional instabilities, symptoms of loss of psychic integrity. Teachers must inspire confidence and engender courage. Nothing more promising has entered into contemporary educational philosophy than the concept of mental health and its relationship to learning and conduct. Our newly established Bureau of Child Guidance is doing a splendid work in launching a program of teacher education in this regard.

Teachers and supervisors must not restrict their vision to what happens within the walls of the classroom or of the school building. They must concern themselves with the entire life of the child in the home, in the street, in the playground, and in the classroom. They must regard as a vital test of the efficiency of the so-called disciplinary activities of the school the carry-over into life outside of the habits, attitudes, emotions, and ideals they are seeking to engender.

The school should set up a character-building program that will be positive, constructive, and dynamic. Passivity, immobility, and acquiescence must not be the sole desiderata. These qualities, raised by teachers into positions of prominence in the eyes of students of human personality, appear as traits that are least desirable. Character building must not be left to chance. It must not be conceived in negative fashion, as a program of inhibitions and restraints. It must not be formalized or reduced to a pattern of words relating to good sentiments and virtuous ideas. It must not be isolated from the remainder of the school program, nor from the daily life of the child. Every element of school routine, atmosphere, and activity must be integrated into the general program in which superintendent, principal, teachers, parents, and children coöperate.

Such a program must be predicated upon the postulation of definite goals—habits, attitudes, interests, and ideals. Supervisors and teachers must comprehend the psychology of character formation. They should understand the factors that enter into the causation of normal personality and those that lead to conflict and maladjustment. They must appreciate the importance of wholesome school environment; for example, of understanding and sympathy, of habit formation, of success and accomplishment, in the development of patterns of individual growth. Self-control and inner control should be seen as the final objective, and disciplinary procedures should be so fashioned that external control will gradually be translated into inner control through a progressively increasing assumption by the pupils of responsibility for deliberation, choice, and behavior in school and out-of-school situations.

The importance of our health and recreative programs cannot be stressed too strongly. Case studies of delinquents reveal a relationship between physical soundness and well-being and normal social adjustments. Ill-health, debility, organic defect, and organic malfunctioning give rise to

irritability, discouragement, feelings of inferiority, fear, resentment, and what may be called "volitional flabbiness." Undoubtedly there is a causal relationship between endocrinological functioning and individual behavior. Everything that is done by the school to discover defects and deficiencies to secure treatment and correction, to safeguard well-being, and to promote health habits and ideals will inevitably reflect itself into an improved outlook on life and superior adjustment to environment.

Men and women rarely go wrong in their busy, working hours. It is in their unemployed, free, and leisure periods that they commit mischief and crime. Idleness is the "devil's workshop." A study of the records of the inmates of any correctional institution for adults will reveal the frequency with which crime is associated with unemployment and even more dramatically with unemployability. Surveys of juvenile delinquents reveal a similar situation, the high degree of correlation between misbehavior and truancy, idleness, misdirected play, desire for adventure, and vagrancy. The school can perform invaluable service by extending its program of vocational guidance, training, and placement; by the development of wholesome leisure interests and activities—physical, athletic, musical, aesthetic, literary, and social.

Most criminals have been school failures. Failure stands out strongly in the lives of the maladjusted. We must protect our children by diagnosing their needs more efficiently; by classifying them properly; by adjusting curricula, class organization, and methodology to their particular needs, interests, and abilities; by enlisting their interests; and by individualizing instruction. In each case, we must discover activities in which the child can be successful. We must treat each pupil on his own level, starting from where he is and leading him upward by suitable stages along the road of successful achievement. Success engenders interest and confidence, and leads to further success. Failure begets loss of interest, inferiority feel-

ing, further failure, and ultimately escape or compensation in forms individually objectionable and socially undesirable.

A perusal of the numerous studies that have been made of the causation of crime makes one fact stand out in bold relief—the fact of multiple determination. Delinquency springs from a wide variety and usually from a multiplicity of alternative and converging influences. Most of these causes are so subtle and insidious that it is well-nigh impossible to trace their source or their paths of influence upon the victim. At times the provocative factors seem to stand out clearly; at other times the condition is so subtle that the offensive act seems gratuitous and incomprehensible. One investigator has traced more than 170 distinct conditions, every one of which he maintains is conducive to misconduct.

It is evident, however, that in any given case amid this tangle of accessory factors, some single circumstance—social, intellectual, emotional, or physical—stands out as the most prominent or the most influential.

Examination of the records of the inmates of our penal institutions in numerous cases, perhaps a majority, reveals a history, if not of juvenile delinquency, at least of pathological acts or conditions that might have been taken as premonitions, as warning signs of impending trouble. Deteriorating home conditions, unfortunate companionships, temperamental disturbances, morbid emotional conditions, truancy, misbehavior, vagrancy, intellectual disabilities, detrimental interests, defective family relations, to varying degrees and in different combinations, are manifest. These, when viewed in retrospect, may be regarded as the causative agents, and when seen in prospect, may be considered as threatening determiners of future maladjustment.

In every school organization appear the perverse, the neurotic, the defective, the truant, the juvenile delinquent, the disorderly, the eccentric, the undependable, and the victims of unfortunate and degraded home and family relationships. Not every member of this group will become

a criminal later, nor will every member of the so-called normal group develop into a good, moral member of society. We must not see pathology in every individual aberration nor human disaster in every social variation. Nevertheless, these conditions are potential factors in delinquency causation. Often their occurrence is so acute that they may be envisaged as the inevitable forerunners of aggravated forms of later disorder. Here the school can function quite effectively. Teacher and supervisor should be on the alert for the appearance of these anticipatory conditions. They should be in close enough touch with the home and with the outside life of the child to gain sufficient data as a basis for further action. A tentative diagnosis should be made and measures should be taken to secure adjustment of deteriorating factors. Adequate adjustment should be made within the school in terms of grade and group reclassification, course of study modification, changes in method of teaching, and teacher-pupil relationship. Some one in the school or in touch with the school should be ready to assume the function of big brother or sister, or of father or mother surrogate, to give to that boy the understanding, the sympathy, the guidance, the oversight, and the help that he requires. A careful case study of the child should be made. He should be given a mental, physical, psychiatric, and environmental examination. The coöperation of the Bureau of Child Guidance, of the department of ungraded classes, and of outside agencies should be secured. Additional ungraded classes for the segregation and specialized education of the mental defective and the borderline cases should be established so that all of the children of this type may be cared for. All this must reflect itself into the home. Every effort must be made to enlist the understanding and the coöperation of the parent or of a parent substitute in the form of brother, sister, cousin, uncle, neighbor, or interested citizen, in the adjustment of the child. The recreational activities of the delinquent must be supervised.

Here and there experiments have been made by individual school supervisors aiming at the integration of the resources of a community—educational, recreational, religious, philanthropic, medical, psychological, social, and moral—so as to bring about organized community action upon its own problems. In some cases, the schools making up the local community have united in this effort, have developed a corps of social-welfare workers and a number of new community agencies, such as a local preventive children's court, a big-brother and sister organization, additional playground facilities, instrumentalities for checking up local neighborhood conditions, and parent-guidance groups. The united schools have become the nucleus of social integration and have taken the initiative in developing a community consciousness and in organizing activities for the protection of the young.

There is no problem confronting the school that is of greater importance than this. The problem of crime prevention cannot be separated from the problem of preventing any other form of individual and social maladjustment. The school is the only agency of society that comes into contact with all of the children; it has the confidence of all persons; it can secure the coöperation of all agencies, public and private; it reaches into all homes through its most emotionalized factor, the child. It can become the most potent force, not only for the teaching of subject matter, but, next to the home, for the conservation of the integrity of childhood and the protection of society.

CREATIVE GENIUS OF THE SOVIETS' CHILDREN

P. JU. VOLOBNER

The creative powers of children became long since the object of special attention and particular study on the part of pedagogues, pedologists, and children's psychologists. For the characteristics of the baby and his development, and the study of the child's interests, the creative works of children appear to be a main source and fountain which must not be ignored. If such is the value of the creative genius of children for pedagogues and pedologists of capitalistic countries, it carries a much greater weight and significance for the pedagogue of the land of the Soviets, the land of socialism, the country where the liquidation of the remnants, scraps, and leftovers of the old life, and the development of the new socialistic economic, industrial, and productional relationship grows a new person, an individual of a new formation, of a new type. To study the creative genius of the Soviet baby, to compare it with the creative genius of the baby of the capitalistic countries, to expose the specific singularities of the former means, to a great extent, to come near to the understanding of the peculiarities and singularities of development of the child of the land of socialism in construction. And that is why at the present time in Russia (and especially is it true for the Ukraine) there is going on a thorough and complete study of children's creative powers, a study to which are drawn the best scientific forces of the country and in which many pedagogical circles participate.

All children's creative work could be classified as follows:

1. Technical creative work
2. Creative work—in plastics, music, and literature
3. Creative work in the field of social life, the pedagogical study work.

From the point of view of the Soviet pedologist-pedagogue, the technical creative work of children and the work of children in the field of social life, the pedagogical study work, are of special interest. In these domains of knowledge the specificum of a child living in the land of the Soviets is shown with the utmost clarity. The tremendous upheaval of social character, typified in the land of the Soviets, the struggle for mastering the highest level of techniques, the fight for the industrialization of the country, polytechnization of the whole system of popular education from the lowest to the highest ranks—all these become the fundamental premise of the growth and development of children's technical creative genius and become the basic stimulus of the premise.

The technical creative works of children are creative works in which is reflected an interest in the most modern technique, the striving to grasp and master it. And it is more and more apparent that in the technical creative work of children the objects of the primitive, backward technique, which so widely prevailed before the Revolution, disappear. It is more and more apparent, even from the youngest age, that the child of the Soviets starts to focus his thoughts upon modern technique, upon modern construction. But this, it seems, does not definitely indicate as yet the specificum of the creative genius of the Soviet child. The specificum begins where the most modern technique, such as the object of striving, aspiration, and rendering, begins to unite itself with socialistic tendencies and trends, along the purposes and aim of the period of reconstruction. The technique not per se, not for itself, but the technique aiming at the battle for the new socialistic order of society, for the fulfillment of the task of *Piatilietka*—the Five-Year Plan—this feature is certainly most characteristic of children living in the land of the Soviets, in the country where all the capitalistic elements are being definitely eradicated, not only in the field of economics but in the psychics of human beings as well. Inventions directed

to rationalize socialistic production, developed for the betterment of conditions and quality of work, for the increase of it in the interests of the laboring class—this is the general line and trend of the technical creative work of children.

The same thing must also be said regarding the creative work of Soviet children in the social field, the pedagogical study work. The drawing in of millions of workers in direct contact with the social-political life of the country, put into practice by the whole policy of the Communist Party and by the power of the Soviets, gave birth to the wide activization of the entire laboring population of the land of the Soviets, and became a great stimulus for creative work in the field of social activities. Millions of workers' suggestions definitely directed towards the improvement of industrial processes, the betterment of conditions of labor and activities of work, industrial consultations in which take part the entire collective of the enterprise or institution, promotion of contre-plans-programs of tasks for improvements and the overfulfillment of the given tasks of production—these are the broad lines of the activization of the laboring masses. All this only testifies to the fact that work becomes in the land of the Soviets "a matter of honor, valor, and heroism"—becomes a real happy, creative labor. This creative characteristic of work also shows itself very clearly in the life of Soviet children, in their social and study-educational activities. Children of the Soviet School are not simply "objects"—they are also "subjects" of study-educational work. They are not only passively accepting the pedagogical process but actively take a part in the rationalization of the process itself and in its construction.

In the historic decision of the Central Committee of the Communist Party, "the elementary and the middle school," the fight for conscious self-discipline among children, *i.e.*, the fight for drawing the children into active, creative work in the school, this fight is emphasized as one of the most

essential problems of educational work at the present time.

In the analysis and study of children's creative genius, special attention should be given to their graphic, musical, and literary genius. Here again we have the specific singularities so characteristic in the Soviet child. These singularities manifest themselves first of all in the tenor and thematics, in the social tendencies of children's drawings, and in their musical and literary works. "Socialism in Construction" is the main trend of the thematics of Soviet children, together with "Class Struggle" and the "Fight for the Five-Year Plan." This is clearly indicated even in the drawings of the youngest children. And the same is seen with even greater clarity and strength in the drawing of children of an older age.

If we regard that the child shows himself in his creative work, particularly is this true in the fields of graphics, literature, and music. It is easily seen that the Soviet child expresses himself as an enthusiast in the socialistic reconstruction of the country. The child is absorbed by the processes of this reconstruction, and from them he gets his images, his colors, and his thematics. The Soviet child in his creations is wholly of the socialistic construction, is fully in it. That is why the Soviet pedagogic studies and analyzes with such attention the creative works of children. In these works the Soviet pedagogue finds what is so necessary for his work; he finds the characteristics of the child of our days, the days of socialistic construction. And this child most certainly shows itself to be the real child of socialism.

EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

O. MYKING MEHUS

One of the objections made against extracurricular activities is that the student who is actively engaged in many activities makes low grades in his regular academic subjects. This objection will be considered in this article in the light of objective data.

The data used in this article were gathered in a study the writer made of the extracurricular activities of the students at the University of Minnesota in 1924-1925 and at Wittenberg College, Springfield, Ohio, in 1927-1928. The scope of these investigations was described in a recent article in *School and Society*.¹

A total of 962 students were enrolled at Wittenberg College. Of this number 95.8 per cent filled out questionnaires in which they indicated the extracurricular activities in which they participated. These questionnaires were carefully checked by the writer for omissions or errors. The scholarship quotients² and intelligence scores³ were secured from the registrar's office.

Table I gives the distribution of the scholarship quotient and the intelligence score of the students at Wittenberg College for the first semester of 1927-1928 distributed according to the number of extracurricular activities in which they participated. The students are divided into three groups—those who participated in no campus activities, those who participated in two or three campus activities, and those who participated in five or more campus

¹O. Myking Mehus, "Extra-Curricular Activities of College Students," *School and Society*, XXXV, April 23, 1932, 574-76.

²"Scholarship quotient" is the term used to designate the quotient which is secured by dividing the number of quality points by the number of credit hours. Each credit hour of "A" equals 4 quality points; each credit hour of "B" equals 3 quality points; each credit hour of "C" equals 2 quality points; and each credit hour of "D" equals 1 quality point.

³The intelligence score is secured by the following intelligence tests, given in the years designated: 1924, Morgan's test (1927-28 seniors); 1925 and 1926, Thurston's test (1927-28 juniors and sophomores); 1927, Ohio State University, Number 12 test (1927-28 freshmen).

activities. These groups are divided into men and women and into the four college classes.

TABLE I
DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOLARSHIP QUOTIENT AND INTELLIGENCE SCORE OF STUDENTS AT
WITTENBERG COLLEGE ACCORDING TO NUMBER OF ACTIVITIES IN WHICH THEY
PARTICIPATED

MEN

| | Inactive Group— No Activity | | Median Group— 2-3 Activities | | Most Active Group— 5 or more Activities | |
|------------------|--------------------------------|--|---------------------------------|--|--|--|
| | Number of Students | Median Scholar- ship Quotient | Number of Students | Median Scholar- ship Quotient | Number of Students | Median Scholar- ship Quotient |
| 1. Freshman... | 37 | 2.00 | 87 | 2.11 | 1 | 3.06 |
| 2. Sophomore... | 26 | 1.93 | 69 | 2.14 | 6 | 3.41 |
| 3. Junior..... | 3 | 2.59 | 53 | 2.12 | 18 | 2.89 |
| 4. Senior..... | 8 | 2.41 | 21 | 2.59 | 10 | 2.50 |
| 5. Special..... | 9 | 3.06 | 4 | 2.28 | | |
| 6. Total..... | 83 | 1.96 | 234 | 2.12 | 35 | 2.67 |
| | Number of Students | Median Intelli- gence Score | Number of Students | Median Intelli- gence Score | Number of Students | Median Intelli- gence Score |
| 7. Freshman... | 36 | 154 | 85 | 159 | 1 | 306 |
| 8. Sophomore... | 22 | 116 | 57 | 110 | 6 | 161 |
| 9. Junior..... | 3 | 196 | 37 | 101 | 17 | 166 |
| 10. Senior..... | 4 | 111 | 7 | 126 | 5 | 124 |
| 11. Special..... | | | | | | |

WOMEN

| | Inactive Group— No Activity | | Median Group— 2-3 Activities | | Most Active Group— 5 or more Activities | |
|------------------|--------------------------------|--|---------------------------------|--|--|--|
| | Number of Students | Median Scholar- ship Quotient | Number of Students | Median Scholar- ship Quotient | Number of Students | Median Scholar- ship Quotient |
| 1. Freshman... | 52 | 2.25 | 60 | 2.66 | 5 | 2.87 |
| 2. Sophomore... | 7 | 3.20 | 64 | 2.81 | 11 | 2.93 |
| 3. Junior..... | 3 | 2.94 | 18 | 2.53 | 7 | 2.82 |
| 4. Senior..... | 6 | 2.81 | 18 | 2.64 | 17 | 3.12 |
| 5. Special..... | 1 | 3.71 | 2 | 2.30 | | |
| 6. Total..... | 69 | 2.25 | 162 | 2.65 | 40 | 2.91 |
| | Number of Students | Median Intelli- gence Score | Number of Students | Median Intelli- gence Score | Number of Students | Median Intelli- gence Score |
| 7. Freshman... | 45 | 158 | 55 | 173 | 5 | 199 |
| 8. Sophomore... | 4 | 82 | 52 | 125 | 10 | 96 |
| 9. Junior..... | 2 | 137 | 17 | 134 | 6 | 144 |
| 10. Senior..... | 1 | 86 | 3 | 91 | 1 | 91 |
| 11. Special..... | | | | | | |

The median scholarship quotient for the total number of students in each of the three categories of activities shows that the men who participated in no campus activity have a median scholarship quotient of 1.96, while the men in two and three activities have a median of 2.12, and the group in five or more activities has a median scholarship quotient of 2.67. This same tendency is found among the women—those in no campus activity have a median scholarship quotient of 2.25; those in two or three campus activities have a median of 2.65; while those in five or more campus activities have a median scholarship quotient of 2.91.

This indicates that the students who are the most active in campus activities are the students who tend to receive the highest grades in academic subjects, while those who participate in no campus activity tend to receive the lowest grades.

The freshman and sophomore men and the freshman women show this same tendency, while the junior and senior men and the senior women show a lower scholarship quotient for the students in no campus activity than for those in five or more activities, but the junior men and senior women have a lower scholarship quotient for those in two or three activities than for those in no campus activity. So far as the junior men are concerned, this may be explained by the fact that the junior men in two or three campus activities have a much lower intelligence score than those in no campus activities. The figures for the intelligence scores for the senior men and women are not complete, so no such explanation can be given. Another factor is that the absolute number in no activity is very small—three junior men, eight senior men, and six senior women.

The sophomore and junior women show the highest scholarship quotient among the women who participate in no campus activity, but here too the absolute numbers are small—seven sophomore women and three junior women. The sophomore and junior women who participate in five

or more activities have a higher scholarship quotient than those who participate in two or three activities.

As indicated above, these figures seem to show that intensive participation in extracurricular activities does not necessarily mean low scholarship for the participants.

Ignoring all the medians which are computed on only five or less students it is found that in every class, except among the sophomore women, the more active students have a higher intelligence score than the less active students (Table I). This suggests that possibly extracurricular activities are a means whereby those of higher mentality expend some of their surplus mental energy.

A study of a sample group of 321 students at the University of Minnesota reveals the same tendency as is shown in the above facts. A group of 150 women and 171 men were divided into three groups—no activities, two or three activities, and five or more activities. These were divided quite evenly among the three upper classes.

A summary of the average and median honor-point ratio of these groups shows that there is a consistent rise in average honor-point ratio from the inactive group to the most active group for both men and women.

Since there were practically no freshmen in the above groups, another group of 200 freshmen was selected. The tabulation for this group shows the same tendency as was found above; namely, that the active groups show a higher honor-point ratio than the inactive group.

Because there is no satisfactory way of testing the degree to which these sample groups of 321 upperclassmen and 200 freshmen represent the whole student body, generalizations must be left to the reader, except to point out that these data do not support the opinion that students who engage in many extracurricular activities do so at the expense of academic achievement.

A study made at Purdue University for the year 1914-1915 in regard to scholarship and extracurricular activity brought out the fact that students carrying a heavy sched-

ule of outside activities may stand excellently in their studies or they may fall behind.⁴ It is all a question of the student himself.

A study of the relation between participation in extracurricular activities and scholarship in the high schools of Kansas City, Missouri, showed that, on the whole, high-school pupils of somewhat more than average intelligence participate in extracurricular activities and that such participation does not significantly affect their scholastic standing.⁵ This study involved 398 high-school students and is a careful piece of work that was presented as a master's thesis at the University of Kansas.

This same tendency was found in a study of extracurricular activities of 1,954 students at the University of California for the year 1925-1926.⁶ This study showed that the average grade of all the men students was 1.21, but that the average grade for the men students who participated most intensively in extracurricular activities was 1.44.

In order to determine what relationship exists between participation in extracurricular activities and failure in class work, a special study was made of the students in the College of Science, Literature, and the Arts who were placed on probation at the University of Minnesota at the end of the winter quarter of 1924-1925 because of low scholarship. A total of 250 students was in this group. Of this number 85, or about one third, filled out the student questionnaire used in this study.

In comparing the participation of probation students in campus activities with the participation for the entire student body, it is found that there is practically no difference between the percentage of probation students that are found in the different number of activities, as none, one, two, etc., and the percentages for the different classes of the

⁴C. H. Benjamin, "Student Activities," *School and Society*, III, February 12, 1916, 231-34.

⁵A. M. Swanson, "The Effect on High School Scholarship of Pupil Participation in Extracurricular Activities," *The School Review*, XXXII, October, 1924, 613-26.

⁶Earl J. Miller, "A Statistical Study of the Relationship Between Extra-Curricular Activities and Scholarship," *Athletic Journal*, VII, May, 1927, 34-44.

entire student body in the corresponding number of activities. This seems to indicate that participation in student activities is not a significant factor in failure to do good classroom work.

The 85 probation students are distributed as follows: freshman men, 50; sophomore men, 14; freshman women, 19; sophomore and junior women, one each. Out of a total of 69 freshman men and women on probation, the intelligence score (percentile rank) was found for 52. The median score is 29 for the men and 24.5 for the women; the twenty-fifth percentile is 10 for the men and 5 for the women; and the seventy-fifth percentile is 47 for the men and 42 for the women. The intelligence score in percentile ranks for the total freshman class of 1,079 men and women entering the arts college of the University of Minnesota for the first time, without advanced standing, in September 1924 shows that in every case the percentile score for the freshman class as a whole is far above that of the 52 students on probation. The twenty-fifth percentiles are over twice as large for the freshman class as for the probation students, while the median and seventy-fifth percentile are nearly twice as great for the whole class as compared with the probation students.

The above facts suggest that freshmen fail in their classroom work because of low intelligence rather than because of excessive participation in extracurricular activities.

That participation in extracurricular activities is not an important cause of deficient scholarship was also brought out in the study of 1,954 men students at the University of Southern California.⁷ This study showed that a total of 335 students were placed on probation in 1925-1926. Out of 540 students in activities, 94 or 17 per cent were on probation, while of the 1,414 students not in activities, 241 or 18 per cent were on probation. Out of 540 students engaged in activities, 35 or 6 per cent were dismissed from college for deficient scholarship, while of the

⁷*Op. cit.*, p. 42.

1,414 students not engaged in activities, 182 or 12 per cent were dismissed for the same reason. This study further showed that the highest average grade (1.44) was made by a group of 25 students who were engaged in the highest number of activities. Only two students, or 8 per cent of this group, were placed on probation as compared to the 17 per cent of nonactivity students on probation. Only one student, or 4 per cent of this group, was dismissed for deficient scholarship as compared to 12 per cent of nonactivity students.

These investigations seem to indicate that causes other than participation in extracurricular activities are the determining factors in low scholarship.

URBAN CENTERS AND THE CURRICULUM

JOHN A. KINNEMAN

This article has developed as the result of an effort to study the incidental outcomes of the various subject fields of the curriculum with a view to determining their functional value in the realm of a wise use of leisure time. Granting that history, civics, music, the fine arts, literature, and other subjects have their separately identified objectives and assuming that these objectives are realized, we may ask whether the objectives, as measured in the outcomes, are the most valid that can be set up.

With a view to scrutinizing the validity of objectives in the several subject fields an effort has been made to secure responses, in writing, from college students, to a number of unrelated and seemingly ridiculous inquiries. The inquiries consisted of a request for specific information on such items as the naming of some metropolitan newspapers, of some trunk-line railroads, or some weekly and monthly magazines, of movie stars, of some major league baseball players, and a variety of inquiries which might constitute a limited cross section of America's present-day recreational experiences. The instruction was given to the students that the naming of each item presupposed some ability at identification of it.

Three questions at the conclusion of the inquiry were concerned with places and things that one should see, hear, or experience in the three principal cities of the United States. No suggestions were given as to what things might be experienced. Each student was asked to name five things in Chicago which he or she would recommend to a friend, who had never been in the city, as worth experiencing when visiting there. The elements of the necessary time and money were considered to be satisfied. The interests of the person to whom the recommendations were made were supposed to be nonexistent. The only purpose which the investigation had was the evaluation of the total

experiences of these students, whether from school work, from magazine or newspaper reading, or from any other sources of current social experience.

The questions were submitted to 370 college students in Illinois. The large majority of them were sophomores, although there was a considerable scattering of members of other classes. The suggestions on Chicago which were listed most frequently are given below.

| <i>Thing to be Experienced</i> | <i>Number Who Suggested It</i> |
|--|--------------------------------|
| Field Museum | 247 |
| Art Institute | 206 |
| Lincoln Park | 134 |
| Planetarium | 82 |
| Department stores (chiefly Field's)..... | 81 |
| Stockyards | 71 |
| Civic Opera | 65 |
| Aquarium | 64 |
| Tribune building | 63 |
| University of Chicago..... | 51 |
| Municipal Pier | 49 |
| Lake Shore Drive..... | 44 |
| World's Fair buildings..... | 43 |
| Loop | 42 |
| Lake Michigan | 38 |
| Soldiers' Field | 36 |
| Hull House | 32 |
| Buckingham Fountain | 31 |
| Wrigley building | 28 |
| Board of Trade..... | 17 |
| Merchandise mart | 13 |
| Garfield Conservatory | 12 |
| Michigan Avenue | 12 |
| Radio stations | 11 |
| Slums | 11 |
| Union station | 10 |

Places that were listed fewer than 10 times are not included in the above tabulation. However, there are many places which were recommended by fewer than 10 persons. Chinatown was recommended 9 times; the Public Library, 3; the Black Belt, 3; the Lindbergh Beacon, 5; the Ghetto, 6, to say nothing of many other places receiving fewer endorsements.

It is of interest to note that of the 370 students, 9 of them failed to make any responses as to what should be seen in Chicago. While each student was requested and allowed to make five suggestions the average number of suggestions per person was 4.4. Furthermore, the chief suggestions are those of institutions which lie on or near Michigan Avenue. The Art Institute, the Field Museum, the Aquarium, the Planetarium, Buckingham Fountain, the Municipal Pier, the Tribune tower, the World's Fair buildings, Michigan Avenue, and Lake Michigan adequately meet that characterization. Of course there is no evidence to indicate the extent and the quality of appreciation which the students had for any of the institutions named. Neither is there any evidence available to show that the persons who made the suggestions had experienced the thing that they recommended. It is rather striking to note, however, that such institutions as the parks, the theaters, the hotels, the restaurants, the industries, the libraries, the railroad stations, and the musical organizations were mentioned by only a negligible number of persons.

Turning now to Philadelphia the tabulation will suggest something of the more limited range of interests and of information concerning places and things to experience.

| <i>Thing to be Experienced</i> | <i>Number Who Suggested It</i> |
|--|--------------------------------|
| Independence Hall | 168 |
| Liberty Bell | 85 |
| Early Government buildings..... | 30 |
| Department stores (chiefly Wanamaker's)..... | 24 |
| Various connections with Franklin..... | 18 |
| Betsy Ross House..... | 17 |
| University of Pennsylvania..... | 15 |
| Carpenters' Hall | 15 |
| United States Mint..... | 13 |
| Sesquicentennial buildings | 9 |
| Philadelphia Orchestra | 8 |
| Shipyards | 8 |

Again, of the 370 students, 109 of them failed to make any suggestions on places to see in Philadelphia. This

seems to evidence that they knew nothing of Philadelphia. Furthermore, the average number of recordings was 1.7, while each student was allowed to make five suggestions.

It will be noted that some of the places in Philadelphia connected with the early history of our country have received their share of attention. That the college student has had the dramatic events in history impressed upon him is reflected in the suggestions given for Philadelphia, which are really in the environs of Boston. There were 10 persons who suggested the Old North Church; 7 wanted to see Faneuil Hall; 3 suggested the Old South Church; 1 suggested seeing Paul Revere's home. On the other hand the Curtis Publishing Company, Temple University, Presser Music Foundation, and Jefferson Medical College each received one endorsement. On the other hand no one mentioned Bartram's Gardens, famous for their botanical lore. No one mentioned the Pennsylvania Hospital, famous as one of the first institutions of its kind in America. Four persons mentioned factories yet no one was specific about the factories which produced hats, saws, carpets, or textiles. Six persons seemed to be intellectually zealous to the point of visiting a Quaker meeting while five wanted to see Connie Mack's baseball team in action. While 13 recommended Central Park in New York only 2 suggested Fairmount Park in Philadelphia. While the historical buildings in and about Boston were confused as having a Philadelphia location, nevertheless the old Swedish Church, on the bank of the Delaware, seems to have been unknown to these several hundred college students. The teacher of history might ask the reason for this.

Proceeding to New York the tabulation on page 154 will suggest the recommendations made by the students.

There were 62 people who failed to make any recommendations, thus suggesting that they were probably not conscious of anything that should be seen in New York. The average number of suggestions for all of the students for New York was 2.9 in contrast with five which they were allowed to suggest.

| <i>Thing to be Experienced</i> | <i>Number Who Suggested It</i> |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Statue of Liberty..... | 159 |
| Woolworth building | 77 |
| Wall Street | 71 |
| Coney Island | 55 |
| Broadway | 46 |
| Brooklyn Bridge | 46 |
| Fifth Avenue | 42 |
| Empire State building..... | 38 |
| Ellis Island | 33 |
| Harbor | 31 |
| Docks | 28 |
| Chrysler building | 24 |
| Stock Exchange | 24 |
| Metropolitan Opera | 23 |
| Columbia University | 22 |
| Madison Square Garden..... | 22 |
| Subways | 21 |
| New York Times building..... | 17 |
| Metropolitan Art Museum..... | 16 |
| Grant's Tomb | 15 |
| Central Park | 13 |
| Chinatown | 13 |
| Hudson Tunnel | 13 |
| Slums | 13 |
| Bowery | 11 |
| Harlem | 11 |
| Roxy Theater | 11 |
| Times Square | 11 |
| Tammany Hall | 10 |

Summary of Data

| | |
|---|-----|
| Total number of persons responding..... | 370 |
| Number failing to make any response on Chicago..... | 9 |
| On Philadelphia | 109 |
| On New York | 62 |
| Number of responses allowed for each city..... | 5 |
| Average number of responses secured on Chicago..... | 4.4 |
| Average on Philadelphia..... | 1.7 |
| Average on New York..... | 2.9 |

INTERPRETATION OF DATA

It may be that there is little or no value in knowing what one might see or do while in any of the three principal cities of the United States. If one were going on a mere

sight-seeing expedition it would be reasonable to assume that outstanding edifices and institutions should be recommended as extensively as those things which are thought of merely as pathological. In New York 5 persons suggested the Cathedral of St. John the Divine; 5, the Little Church Around the Corner; 6, the Public Library; 7, Trinity Church. On the other hand 11 recommended the Bowery; 13, Chinatown; 13, the slums. The socially abnormal seems to have a stronger call on the human consciousness than the normal.

From another angle we might note that college students are not contemporary minded in the sense that they follow all modern improvements. The Brooklyn Bridge was recommended by 46 people while the larger and more pretentious bridges, one the Philadelphia-Camden and the other the new Hudson River bridge, were each recommended three times. On the other hand we might wonder whether the recent construction of the new Civic Opera building in Chicago is not the basis for its receiving the 65 votes that it has, in contrast with the 23 given to the Metropolitan Opera in New York. What relationship should exist between the teaching of music in the grades and in high school and the appreciation of outstanding musical organizations?

There can be no doubt that more than an ordinary amount of attention has been given to those places in which some historical incident of dramatic character occurred. Then, too, it is fair to assume that the emphasis which has been given to some places through widely circulated pictures has had much to do with the endorsements which have been given to them. The best illustrations of this, no doubt, is the Statue of Liberty. One might reasonably wonder what educational value there is in any of the first five places named on the New York list—educational in the sense that an acquaintance with them assists one in making social adaptations.

That a large part of our information, including that

which we get in school, must be regional and provincial, is reflected in the fact that 247 persons seemed to know of and to recommend the Field Museum in Chicago while only 3 suggested the Museum of Natural History in New York. While 206 mentioned the Art Institute in Chicago only 16 mentioned the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York; at the same time only 3 mentioned the Academy of Fine Arts in Philadelphia and one mentioned the new Municipal Art Museum in that city. This might seem to indicate that our art information is regional and maybe not functional in its best sense. When it came to the theater a few persons were quite vague about their recommendations in that they recommended a trip to the theater. One person from among the 370 suggested seeing "Green Pastures" in Chicago, while two persons, one of whom was included in the foregoing suggestion, recommended "Mourning Becomes Electra" in New York. As previously mentioned in connection with Chicago, hotels and restaurants were almost unknown, at least they were not mentioned. The University of Chicago, with its 51 endorsers, surpassed Columbia with 22, Pennsylvania with 15, Temple with 1, and New York University with 3. Two college students recommended the "Follies" while 4 persons thought that a night club would be necessary to round out a trip. One student majoring in music gave as her only recommendations in New York and Philadelphia respectively, the Statue of Liberty and the Liberty Bell.

There seems to be little doubt that the places suggested, especially in New York, represent a cross section of a typical American's quest for material achievements. The prominence given to the Woolworth building, the Brooklyn Bridge, the Empire State building, the Chrysler building, and the Hudson Tunnel evidences this. Ellis Island, in spite of the fact that it is now little used, was considered important by 33 people. Grant's Tomb was suggested by 15 people, but International House, located nearby, seemed to be entirely unknown. These people seemed to

be unaware of some famous churches in these cities manned by well-known clergymen.

One might wonder if different responses might not have been secured if these people, in being put through the educational paces, had been made aware of contemporary institutions—church, press, relief, recreation, school, industry, and other institutions instead of leaving the sight-seeing public to recommend the places of little social importance—places which, if city life were really well known, would be infinitely less awesome than they now are. Why should any one be awed by a high building? Doesn't every town and city have one? Shouldn't college students be more responsive to the realm of ideas than they seem to be to the larger things of our civilization? Should the school be responsible for making them more intellectually responsive? Should all subject fields be used in attaining the end?

PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND THE COMMUNITY CHEST¹

ARTHUR J. TODD

In the course of the general realignment of social institutions and the new division of labor between them which have come in the wake of the new industrialism and other phenomena changing the contours of western social structure, the school has taken on certain new functions. Among these new functions are some which are genuinely in the nature of technical social work. In other words, the school system is more and more becoming an essential pattern in the general social-welfare texture and activities in the modern community. Consequently, it is no matter for surprise that the public and private schools should have been brought within the ambit of such a vigorous movement of social organization as the community chest.

The chest and the schools have been brought together in various ways. Usually where a council of social agencies or community council is part of the community-chest plan, various activities of the public schools are represented, such as the visiting teachers, the school nurses, and the vocational-guidance and placement bureaus. In some communities new social-welfare services of the schools have been financed by the community chest during their experimental period; for example, in Cincinnati, Superintendent Edward D. Roberts in a letter of March 12, 1931, reviews the course of development of the service for children leaving school and also other activities:

The Vocation Bureau was established approximately fifteen years ago with the assistance of the community chest, no doubt under the feeling of the chest officials that there was justification for the community's social agency to finance the Board of Education's service in controlling child employment,

¹This paper was originally read in the section on Sociology and Education of the American Sociological Society, Washington, 1931.

attendance, and the like. Consequently, counseling when it was begun some ten years ago was under the assistance of the community chest, though increasingly this support has been withdrawn and the entire maintenance provided from the Board of Education treasury.

The director of the Vocation Bureau is still under salary partly from the community chest and partly from the Schmidlapp Bureau, a foundation in this city devoted to social service.

The community chests have frequently lent their influence to supporting various movements for the improvement of school facilities. The Cleveland Welfare Federation in the course of fifteen years' work has carried through a series of projects in community research of great value, both directly and indirectly, to the school system. These include a general children's survey in 1920, a recreation survey during the same year, and a report on the County Board of Child Welfare in 1929. It also undertook in 1930 a study of the relation of settlement houses to public schools. Among health studies of concern to the public school may be mentioned The Health of the Young Child, Dental Surgical Work for Children, Uniform Health Teaching, and an analysis of the preschool diphtheria campaign.

Since the annual financial drive or campaign is an outstanding social event in chest communities, the schools could hardly be left as mere passive bystanders. No complete record has ever been obtained of all the activities of the nearly 400 active community chests and councils in the United States. Apparently the great majority of the chests which are members of, and report to, the Association of Community Chests and Councils, do not overtly solicit school children through the machinery of the public schools. In most communities teachers form a section or division of the campaign organization. In 1930, eighteen community-chest cities reported subscriptions from public-school children. During the last year, two of these cities, viz., Madison, Wisconsin, and Pueblo, Colorado, report

that they have ceased to solicit school children. The executive in one of these cities writes:

We have a population here of not much accumulated wealth, most of our resident citizens being in the employed, pay-roll class. Our gifts come to us in small amounts, and we have felt that many people would not give were their children solicited.

The other executive writes:

We placed . . . literature in the hands of the school teachers and the pupils, believing that the continuation of an educational program is much more important than the moneys collected.

In 1930 only five really considerable metropolitan communities included school children in their solicitation; viz., Cleveland, Los Angeles, Newark, St. Paul, and Denver.

It is doubtful if the total contributed by school children in all of the chest cities of the United States has ever reached \$100,000. The total reported in 1930 for the eighteen cities was slightly under \$80,000. The number of school children responding to the solicitation is not always reported, but in the cities for which figures are obtainable the numbers range from 1,200 in Hot Springs, Arkansas, to 157,000 in Los Angeles, and over 219,000 in Cleveland. It has sometimes been asserted that these community chests include school children as a means of padding the total of their givers. There is but little point to this criticism, however, because in practically every case the figures of school-children contributors are reported separately from the general analysis of contributors and contributions. There may, by some stretching of the imagination, be a spark of advertising virtue in being able to say that one half of the population of Cleveland contributes to the community fund, if the school children be included in the list of contributors, but this is doubtful.

It is more important to determine the percentage of the total funds raised which were secured from school children than to know how many children contributed, or the exact

sum of their contributions. In six cities for which figures were obtainable, school children contributed one half or less than one-half per cent of the total fund raised in 1930; in five cities, between one half and one per cent; in three cities, one per cent or over.

In no event, therefore, are the actual money contributions of school children of prime significance. Indeed, were any attempt made to keep a separate accounting for such individual donations from school children, the cost of printing, of posters, of special badges, and of collection would no doubt amount to far more than the total realized from this source. In some communities the chest specifically limits the amount accepted from school children, and there is apparently no attempt to apply coercive measures or to stigmatize children who do not give.² In Muncie, Indiana, for example, the chest executive specifically states that the solicitation from school children is conducted more from an educational than a financial standpoint:

We do not have contests among the schools for giving the largest sum of money like a great many cities do, because some of our schools are in poor districts and cannot contribute much, thus giving the others an unfair advantage. However, each teacher tries to have her particular room 100 per cent in number of contributions and each school reports 100 per cent wherever possible.

Teachers are instructed to tell their pupils all about the community fund, its agencies and their activities. Some schools where children are unable to bring pennies, they are given some small chore to perform such as cleaning the blackboard, filling inkwells, dusting, etc. The teacher pays them a few pennies for this task and they in turn contribute their earnings with the other contributions. The educational value derived from such methods is indeed beneficial to the community fund.

The educational value of participating in such a community-wide enterprise as a chest campaign is considered

²During the discussion of this paper at Washington, a public-school teacher of that city strongly criticized the various "drives" (notably Junior Red Cross) for attempting to enlist a hundred per cent response from school children with fruit, handkerchiefs, and other contributions. She claimed that teachers usually have to provide the extra money or articles to complete the school quotas, and even reported cases where children had stolen articles with which to make their contribution. The complaint was not against the merit of the organizations, nor against appeals for contributions, but against the use of coercion to secure the factitious appearance of universal response.

by both the chest and the schools to be the most desirable end to be attained. Participation in these campaigns stimulates the interest of teachers and parents, but vastly more important than this is the opportunity they afford for putting into the hands of teachers and children valuable material on local community conditions, community needs, and the community-organized welfare agencies set up to meet these needs. The school children are given a sense of community responsibility, and frequently a vivid appreciation of the essential integration of their communities. By graphs, charts, diagrams, photographs, posters, discussions, and dramatics the children are led to an understanding of how the members of a community are part and parcel of each other. This theoretical sense of interdependence is frequently illuminated by organized visits to typical social-welfare institutions.

School children are encouraged to participate in various ways besides financial contributions; for example, the 1931 prize-winning poster for the Madison, Wisconsin, campaign was drawn by a boy in Central High School. In that city a special four-page leaflet was prepared and circulated among the school children, stating very simply the types of social-welfare work, understandable by children, performed by various agencies in the community union.

In St. Paul, Minnesota, large posters were distributed to the schools designed to show the "Trail of the Community Chest" meandering from the school, by the home for the aged and the orphanages, and by the agencies working on behalf of children's health, boys and girls, needy families. In this particular city the school campaign plan included equipment for each schoolroom, consisting of a container for receiving the room contributions, a chart or diagram to record the contributions, and a special designation to be worn by the contributor. The schoolrooms were organized under a chest captain, with a committee of from five to ten pupils working with the captain.

The captain's duties were to:

1. Place chart on wall
2. Mark progress of room on chart
3. See that the container for the money is properly placed each day
4. To organize his committee into a speakers' bureau who shall learn all they can, from any and all sources, of the variety of activities which the chest supports. One or two of the committee should give short talks each day on some phase of the chest work and should also lead the room in discussions of the ways and means by which the pupils may earn or save money for their contributions. Some group project might be undertaken to supplement the individual contributions. The idea of self-denial should be stressed as well as the unusual amount of need in this particular year. As always, the goal of 100 per cent participation should be emphasized more than the actual amount of money to be raised. A folder of general information will be sent each teacher as a help in answering children's questions and supplying additional material.

In this city too the chest prepared a set of materials to be spread before the children and designed to familiarize them to some extent with:

1. The social and industrial order in which they live and some of the problems which are characteristic of our times
. . . many of them problems of all times
2. Some concept of the community organization necessary to take care of people who cannot care for themselves
3. Some idea why so many people cannot take care of themselves

A commendable feature of this plan was the accompanying suggestion that these materials would be effective only as they were given life and color by the ingenuity of the individual teacher.

It is probably easy to work on the ready sympathies of the average youngster to make "feeling sorry for the poor" the sole reason for the community chest. But it would seem to be possible, also, especially with the older children, to develop a concept of a social ideal of responsibility for the welfare of all men, women, and children making up a city, the State, and nation.

Then follows a list of the general types of social work represented by such agencies as the family societies; relief-

giving agencies; agencies for the care of the aged; orphan-ages; character-building and recreational agencies; health care.

This little manual includes questions like the following, to be written on the board as topics for class discussion:

What do we mean by private philanthropy; what is its opposite?

What is dependency?

What causes dependency?

Why should boys and girls understand community problems like dependency, health, recreation for children, care of the aged, etc.?

What causes unemployment?

What are some of the effects in families of unemployment?

Explain what is meant: Character is made or marred in spare time.

Questions for the older boys and girls include the following:

This is called an industrial civilization. Why?

What are the hazards of present-day industry?

What do we mean by a living wage?

What is a social program; social planning?

What is unemployment insurance?

What are old-age pensions?

What countries provide pensions for mothers with dependent children?

What are the Workman's Compensation laws?

What is meant by socially and economically inadequate?

What is a social worker?

What were the ideals of youth's development in ancient Greece? In Sparta? Compare these with the ideals for the development of youth today.

In St. Paul certain written and oral exercises based upon observations outside the classroom were also suggested. The children were asked to bring illustrations cut out of magazines and to make posters for such slogans as: Give for the Children; Help Others; Share; Help. Other suggestions include an editorial on "Why St. Paul should care for the unemployed"; a radio announcement of the coming community-chest campaign; a plan for some representative or representatives of the school to visit some of the

chest-supported agencies. In addition, certain social situations were outlined briefly as problem cases, together with an equally brief statement of how a social-welfare agency would handle the case; for example:

George, aged 19, earns \$10.00 a week. He has three younger brothers whose ages are 3, 6, and 9. His father is dead. He is the sole support of his mother and the younger children. George graduated from high school last year and his teachers say he was a very fine student with an unusual talent for drawing. His mother would go out and do work by the day, but feels that the children are too young to be left alone. What can be done to help George?

It is interesting to know that George found a friend in a worker from a family agency. The younger children were placed in a day nursery (which gives day care to children of working mothers), while his mother found some places where she could work by the day. A scholarship was secured for George through a men's luncheon club and he is now attending night classes in advanced drawing and design. George is very happy and beginning to feel that after all he will attain his ambition to be an artist.

A girl, aged 12, from Springfield, Illinois (sent to St. Paul after her mother's death), arrives at the Union station with less than a dollar. She has expected an aunt to meet her. What would happen to this little girl if the aunt did not meet her?

Travelers' Aid would immediately see a child who was not met and would find her aunt. If that were not possible they would telegraph the Travelers' Aid in Springfield for further information. If the child proved to be a dependent child she would be returned to Springfield for care.

Cleveland has been a pioneer in the problem of campaigning with school children, and also in providing educational materials for social education in the schools. In 1930 the following campaign letter was sent out to the teachers of both high schools and elementary schools. It was signed jointly by the Superintendent of Schools, the Roman Catholic Bishop of Cleveland, and the Chairman of the Schools Division of the fund campaign. Along with it went a handbook of campaign information.

To the teacher:

The purpose of this booklet is to offer suggestions by means

of which you may help the children in your classroom to grow in community consciousness and responsibility through understanding the services and needs of the community fund.

Because the aim of the Schools Division of the Fund is educational, we offer the following suggestions: (1) The work should be, so far as possible, a part of the school procedure throughout the year, since short, intensive drives rarely have permanent value, and (2) while 100 per cent contribution from children is highly desirable, it should be expected only in districts where it may be accomplished without hardship to the child.

To promote the well-being of the community in which we live is, to the extent of our ability, a personal obligation. Let us again direct our best efforts towards helping with mind and heart this beneficent civic enterprise.

From the Elementary Teachers' Handbook, the following page summarizes the facts which it is aimed to get to both the teachers and the school children through this type of civic educational material:

Why is a Community Fund needed

When Cleveland was a small village, sickness or other needs in one family brought a quick response from the neighbors. As the village grew into a town, and then into a city, it became more and more difficult to know of the neighbors in need, although a larger number and more varied problems presented themselves.

The following basic activities included in the community plan secure support through the Cleveland Community Fund:

1. *The Relief of Suffering*—Families lacking food, shelter, or clothing because of poverty, sickness, death of the breadwinner, imprisonment, or desertion; children neglected, mistreated, or deprived of parents; the acutely or the chronically ill; those suddenly afflicted by blindness or crippled conditions are given emergency relief if natural resources fail to provide the necessities.

2. *The Rebuilding of Strength*—Physical, mental, moral—The second basic activity is the provision of ways and means for rebuilding the sick. This may mean many days' care in a hospital or many treatments in a dispensary. More difficult is the necessary rebuilding of the handicapped and the mentally ill. Rebuilding broken family homes, helping the members of a family to regain independence, self-respect, or to overcome obstacles causing the problem are the objectives of the family-welfare agencies. Careful study of the family background and the resources in the family and the community

is necessary before a constructive plan may be worked out. Similar services are made available to children and adolescents who need guidance and opportunities.

3. *The Giving of a Second Chance*—Those whose anti-social conduct has been marked enough to bring them before the courts, especially first offenders, need friends—and another chance. Such resources as the Training School of the Sisters of the Good Shepherd, the Brotherhood Club for men paroled from the workhouse, and other agencies are essential aids in giving this "second chance." The homes for unmarried mothers ensure friendliness, physical care, and help in a plan for the future at a most critical time. The handicapped are trained for other work.

4. *The Guidance of Those Who May be Getting Off the Track*—Preventing wrecked lives and wrecked families through attention to danger signals brings large dividends to a community. Community Fund agencies assist in adjustments within the family circle, interpreting child to parent and parent to child. They also try to bring both into an understanding relationship with the school and the employer. To do these things, they utilize the recreational and educational opportunities offered in settlement clubs and classes, Scout and Camp Fire Groups, and Christian Associations.

5. *The Correction of Conditions Leading to Suffering and the Building of a Better Citizenship*—Programs of agencies, such as those concerned with efforts to eradicate tuberculosis, epidemics, and hazards causing blindness and accidents, are vital if we do not want to pyramid the far-reaching suffering caused by sickness and accidents.

The building of health as illustrated by the programs of the camps; the building of character through group work in settlements and other associations; the encouragement of young people and adults to secure vocational and avocational skills which will make for a stable and well-adjusted life are among the activities needing support. Fostering of group and racial understanding, stimulating neighborliness, planning with public agencies for better housing, a cleaner city, adequate recreation facilities, and educational opportunities adapted to the needs of all groups are other essential points covered in agency programs.

6. *The Study of Causes*—Last, and most important of the basic activities needing community-fund support, is the analysis of problems and our plans for attacking them—study of birth and death statistics, prevalence of disease, crime conditions, present methods of care, and trends in each field of work. A searching inquiry into the reasons for past successes and

failures and consideration of new phases of community problems are essential. The activities of the Welfare Federation and Jewish Federation in encouraging such study by their member agencies are typical of this division.

These campaign materials are placed in the hands of school children, or are sometimes written by the children themselves, but usually are prepared by teachers or school executives in collaboration with the community-chest staff.

The principle of coercive conformity is apparently not the basis for securing the coöperation of school children in community-chest campaigns. Much more effective is the positive appeal made through the awarding of distinctive feathers, buttons, or badges of one sort or another. One community uses a green feather; another sends out a red feather to be stuck in the cap of every child that contributes. The slogan, the symbol, and a certain urge through competition and conspicuous reward are utilized to stimulate the motor response of the children, along with their mental response, to the various pieces of campaign literature put in their hands.

The community fund of Cleveland offers the junior and senior high-school teachers somewhat more advanced study materials than are found in the elementary handbook. In the 1930 edition of this handbook, high-school pupils were urged to write and sing community-fund songs; to write verses and jingles; to make posters; to devise slogans; to put out a special community-fund edition of the school paper; to write and act an original play; to choose a group of students who were to go from room to room making short speeches for the community fund; to use words suggested by community-fund activities in their vocabulary building and spelling; (for example—adequate, assist, beneficiary, campaign, donor, hygiene, institution, neighbor, organization, welfare); they were encouraged to read and discuss poems and stories which had as their underlying theme one or more of the philosophical principles of the community fund, such as Lowell's *Vision of*

Sir Launfal, Wilde's *Happy Prince*, Hawthorne's *Great Stone Face*, Dickens' *Christmas Carol*, and Mark Twain's *The Prince and the Pauper*. The handbook also included samples of exercises from previous years of school experience in English and even in Latin. Hints for the utilization of community-welfare agencies and community-fund facts are offered to practically every department of high-school instruction—English, mathematics, history, geography, home economics, art, music, biology, and manual training.

So far, for the most part, we have been discussing the relations between the school and social-welfare finance in community-chest cities but the experience of Cincinnati shows that this same educational work can be accomplished without financial solicitation of school children. The community chest in this city prepares and broadcasts throughout the schools of the whole city booklets designed to acquaint school children with community facts and "to make real to pupils the fundamental interdependence of all our citizens, and the obligation resting upon each to recognize and act upon his personal responsibility as a member of the community."

Since in Cincinnati, as in other chest cities, the campaign is the high point of community education in social-welfare work during the year, these campaign and community facts are put into the hands of teachers to aid them "in developing the great educational values inherent in the community-chest campaign and in the organizations affiliated with it."

It seems to be the general consensus of opinion among school authorities and community-chest executives where the plan is in vogue that carrying the community-chest campaign into the schools provides the basis for social education and for developing an attitude of community responsibility not easily secured otherwise.

W. Frank Persons, in his study of the community chest ten years ago, seems to have assumed more or less as a matter of course that the solicitation of school children

was a definite and unobjectionable part of the community-chest plan. He shows its possible effectiveness in strengthening current campaigns as well as in laying an educational basis for the whole plan of federated financing.

School children in several cities are invited to make small contributions, though the purpose is predominately educational. The plan is to reach the school children with carefully prepared statements, or through lessons which become a part of their classroom work at the time of the campaign. In Cleveland, the maximum gift asked is ten cents. In Cincinnati, there has been for three years a course of study on the work of the community council, in all grades of parochial, private, and public schools. No money is asked from the children, as a matter of principle. The children are encouraged to explain to their parents the purpose and meaning of the campaign. Last year when the campaign seemed likely not to reach its goal, the children were reached through the public schools, and thus in every home an effective emergency appeal was made.

The experience of the school system in Los Angeles in its relation with the community chest over a series of years has been summarized by Mr. W. S. Field, assistant superintendent, as follows:

The entire school department of Los Angeles coöperates with the community chest in every possible way. School children are permitted to contribute to the chest through their schools but they are not urged to do so, neither are children permitted to know what other children give, and no competition to see what classroom or school shall give the most is permitted. The children take information concerning the community chest to their homes. The art classes in high schools prepare community-chest posters, school papers carry articles giving community-chest information, and it is assumed that all children are helping with the chest. On this assumption every child is given the little colored feather which is used this year to indicate that contribution has been made.

All employees of the Board of Education are invited to contribute to the community chest but no pressure is brought to bear to force them to do so.

High-school pupils go to the elementary schools and speak for the community chest before the elementary-school pupils.

There appears to be no criticism on the part of the public of having the schools coöperate with the community chest in the manner indicated in the foregoing. It is difficult to point

out specific beneficial results but it is believed that the community chest gives opportunity for very concrete instruction in the responsibilities of society for its less fortunate members and in the ways in which those responsibilities are being met.

The procedures outlined in the previous paragraphs have in general been followed in Los Angeles for several years. While it is possible that improvement can be effected in minor details, the general plan appears to be highly acceptable.

The community chest undoubtedly is an effective agency for creating social attitudes. Its emphasis upon teamwork, upon pooling of resources, upon tolerance, upon universal giving, and its utilization of certain human appeals through the massed campaign are all effective devices in the direction of social education broadly considered. The community-chest campaign and its follow-up through the year, designed to include school children in its scope, has, therefore, a double significance of providing for the public schools a series of teaching materials along community lines, invested with a certain immediacy, concreteness, and vitality not usually secured in other ways. The sense of participation in a community-wide movement offers additional pedagogical opportunity, and, on the part of the community chest, the inclusion of the school in its campaign offers the opportunity for creating social awareness and social understanding which can scarcely fail to be of capital value to the community-chest movement in years to come.

Meanwhile, perhaps as near as we could come to stating general principles for guiding and safeguarding this relationship between community chests and the schools would be to urge: (1) that if school children are solicited at all, such solicitation should be entirely freed from pressure or coercion of any sort; (2) that in the long run community funds stand to gain more from supplying schools with educational materials on social-welfare work prepared by, or in coöperation with, school authorities than from soliciting children's pennies; (3) that there is little or no advantage in padding contributor totals with thousands of school

children; (4) that local conditions and traditions will in general determine in what way school children can participate to the best advantage in chest campaigns; (5) that there is no valid reason for not soliciting teachers as a group and, that on the other hand, in cities like Detroit experience proves that the teachers are among the most influential supporters of the chest.

RELATED AND SUBSIDIARY STUDIES OF THE BOYS' CLUB STUDY OF NEW YORK UNIVERSITY

FREDERIC M. THRASHER

Editorial Note: The following account of the related and subsidiary investigations of the Boys' Club Study has been prepared from statements written by the following staff members or persons working from time to time in coöperation with the Study: Nels Anderson, Salvatore Cimilluca, Marie J. Concistré, Leonard Covello, Paul G. Cressey, Harry Friedgut, James R. Griffiths, Bertha Hirshstein, John E. Jacobi, Caroline W. Leonard, May Case Marsh, Vincent McAlloon, Edith Mozorosky, Reginald Robinson, Mabel E. Rugen, Burton Peter Thom, Margaret E. Tilley, and Sydney R. Ussher.¹

The following list represents merely an enumeration of the related and subsidiary studies of the Boys' Club Study:

Descriptive study of the boys' club—Reginald Robinson.

History of the boys' club movement in the United States—Joseph Greeley.

Boys' club administration and personnel—Harry Friedgut.

Participation in program and leadership among boys' club boys—Elizabeth Watson.

Health activities of the boys' club—Mabel E. Rugen.

Morbidity and mortality in a boys' club area—Burton Peter Thom, M.D.

Community organization in a boys' club area—Sydney R. Ussher.

History of boys' club community from Colonial beginnings to 1880—Nels Anderson.

History of boys' club community from 1880's to date—Salvatore Cimilluca.

Vocational and employment problems of boys—Anthony H. Petrazzuolo.

Juvenile delinquency in boys' club and related areas—John E. Jacobi.

Truancy in boys' club areas—Edith Mozorosky.

Statistical indices of truancy—Jacob Drachler.

Commercialized recreation in boys' club area—Vincent McAlloon.

Social rôle of motion pictures in boys' club area—Paul G. Cressey, et al.

"Big muscle" activities in boys' club area—James R. Griffiths.

Social functions of churches in boys' club area—May Case Marsh.

¹The whole of the September (1932) issue of THE JOURNAL was devoted to the basic methods—general set-up and case study, ecological and statistical phases—of the Boys' Club Study of New York University. This article is an account of the related and subsidiary studies.

Boy Scouting in boys' club area—Margaret E. Tilley, et al.
 Social settlements and community houses in boys' club area—Caroline W. Leonard.

The public library and the influence of reading in a boys' club area—Bertha T. Hirshstein.

Adult education in a boys' club area—Marie J. Concistré.

Italian heritages in a boys' club area—Leonard Covello.

Housing in a boys' club area—Margaret B. Gerard.

A study of girls in a boys' club area—Dorothy Reed.

Problems of the girls' club in a boys' club area—Annette Perkins.

Family status of boys' club members and non-club boys—Edwin L. Huntley.

Certain phases of these studies have dealt with special aspects of the boys' club itself, while many have been concerned with community backgrounds and social influences outside the boys' club program.² All have contributed to make the Boys' Club Study somewhat unique in envisaging the total situation complex which provides the setting for boys' club influence. An attempt has been made to describe so far as possible all the interacting factors which constituted the immediate environment of one of the clubs; basic population data, mobility, institutions, groups, and persons. By including normal as well as pathological conditions within the scope of the Study, truancy, delinquency, and juvenile demoralization are seen in relation to normal recreational activities. An important assumption has been that no one social fact in a community can be adequately understood without some investigation of the total milieu within which it is functioning.³

An important phase of the Study of the boys' club itself, under the direction of Reginald Robinson, has been an application of the descriptive method. An attempt has been made here to formulate a complete and accurate description of the program and activities of a typical boys' club unit. For purposes of comparison descriptions of other units with somewhat different emphases have been included in the plan. These have been presented in rela-

²It should be specifically noted that no related or subsidiary study was undertaken which in any way impaired the progress of the Boys' Club Study proper by the diversion of either time, energy, or money provided for that purpose.

³See Frederic M. Thrasher, "The Study of the Total Situation," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, April and June 1928, pp. 477-91; 599-613.

tion to the history of specific boys' clubs and the boys' club movement in general⁴ and have been thrown against a background of general standards for boys' club work set up by the national boys' club organization (Boys' Clubs of America, Inc.).

A more specific phase of the descriptive study has been the investigation of the administration and personnel of a given boys' club unit under the direction of Harry Friedgut. This has included a description of the qualifications of boys' workers, both paid and volunteer, and the set-up and organization of the boys' club administration.

A descriptive study of the health activities of the boys' club was completed by Mabel E. Rugen, who, by the use of statistical materials, interviews, and direct observations, was able to build up an interesting picture of this phase of boys' club work. In addition an attempt was made by the use of similar methods to describe the extensive health activities of other agencies in the same area and to see the boys' club health work in relation to the larger health program in the district. A statistical study of the sociological aspects of morbidity and mortality in one of the boys' club areas was made by Burton Peter Thom, M.D.

Turning from this group of studies we come to a consideration of the projects which are concerned with the community background and the social influences expressed in various types of groups, institutions, and cultural heritages. No institution which performs a community function can exist in isolation, nor can it be at all understood without a careful study of its interrelationships and interactions with the multiplicity of social structures and social forces which make up the complex of community life. Since the boys' club is no exception to this well-established generalization, it was essential in this Study to survey and to describe the complicated social structure of the boys' club community,⁵ in order to understand and interpret ade-

⁴A history of the boys' club movement in the United States has been undertaken by Joseph Greeley.

⁵This was done very intensively for a district in which one of the boys' club units was located.

quately the part which it played in the life of the district

The general survey of the area studied most thoroughly and the study of community organization in this district has been under the general direction of Sydney R. Ussher. The methods used in constructing the social base map of the community have been described in an article which appeared in the September number of *THE JOURNAL*. Once the enumeration and classification of social structures had been completed, the next problem was to get behind the formal names and superficial functions attributed to social groups and institutions and to discover the actual processes in operation—the conflicts within and without, the methods of coöperation, the interactions and interrelationships, the ramifications of influence, etc.

Then, systematically, we visited each place on our map. We hobnobbed with bankers and janitors, took luncheon with letter carriers, went swimming with a social worker. As occasion demanded we assumed various guises; a reporter for a local tabloid, a real-estate agent, a fond uncle seeking a nice social club for his nephew to join. We found that people told more of themselves and of the institutions and groups with which they had dealings when they spoke to an interested but apparently *unrecording* individual. Most people like to talk; their only fear is that of being quoted. Consequently, we rarely showed pencil and paper, but relied on our memories and an early access to the dictating machine back at the University for an account of the interview. These reports we made as nearly verbatim as possible. And, of course, we regarded our data as confidential, so far as ever revealing anything derogatory about identifiable institutions or persons was concerned.

With the larger institutions, such as churches, schools, hospitals, and settlements, we made ourselves known in order to get specific data. But in poolrooms, saloons, candy stores, club rooms, etc., and even in the larger institutions when we wanted to learn attitudes or hear gossip, we attempted to conceal our identity. With regard to every institution, however, we tried to gather information on the following points:

1. Function
2. History—date and cause of inception, development
3. Area served
4. Policy
5. Program

} both theoretical and actual

6. Method of financing
7. Personnel—names, addresses, and duties of directors, members, employees; how appointed
8. Coöperation—both positive and negative—with other institutions
9. Competition—overlapping or duplication of service
10. Attitudes of personnel towards
 - a) their own organization
 - b) other organizations
 - c) community in general
11. Attitudes of outsiders towards the organization and its personnel.

Certain institutions were covered in more detail than others. We secured case studies of a typical school, representative churches, a large hospital, one of the most active settlements, and the leading foreign-language newspapers.

To make the study more graphic we have had photographs made of each kind of institution. These were taken by professional photographers under the direction of staff members so that scenes were obtained which were not only technically correct but significant sociologically.

A schedule similar to that for institutions was worked out for groups. It included the following points:

1. Ecology (distributive aspect of the units of the group)
2. Function
3. Background
4. Developmental history
5. Personnel (including leadership)
6. Relationship to other groups. . . .

These groups we placed on our map along with the institutions and agencies and we began to notice the appearance of natural areas. We gave these descriptive names such as the Gold Coast, the Slum, the Health Belt, Marooned German Families, Irish Islands, Petrograd, the Bright Lights Area, the Black Wedge, etc. It has been interesting to correlate these areas with other data on the map such as population density, land usage, land value, transportation facilities, distribution of telephones, etc. Twenty-five paid investigators and seventy-five college students who elected projects in this field have brought in material which has constantly changed our minor objectives and enlarged the scope of our study.

Our major objectives, however, have remained fairly constant. We wanted to be able to answer questions like the following with reference to the area:

To what extent is public opinion area opinion? Does the area think as a unit?

Is leadership local or is it imported? Is there considerable interlocking of leadership?

How stable is the area compared with other communities?

How do the institutions adapt themselves to a changing environment?

What do the racial, economic, religious, and political conflicts do to the organization of the area as a community?

Is there overlapping of administrative areas? Is there uncovered territory?

To what extent do social organizations, financed from the outside, act as artificial substitutes for real community organization, with the support coming from within?

Our greatest difficulty in this project is not in finding enough material. It is in selecting from the welter of heterogeneous facts as they come in the points which will most adequately cover our objectives and at the same time culminate in making an honest picture which gives the significant backgrounds of the boys' club unit being investigated.⁶

By means of the methods described above as well as the collection of printed reports, local surveys, special studies, dictations by superior boys, etc., it has been possible to build up extensive files including descriptions of the nature and functioning of all types of groups and institutions in the neighborhoods from which the boys' club draws its membership. In most cases specific data is available on each individual social structure. This background material is invaluable in explaining the interests and activities of specific boys and groups of boys who have had contacts with the agencies in question. Without it every such contact of the boys would have had to be formal and external.

In order to procure a more adequate background for understanding the current organization of the boys' club community, two historical studies were undertaken. The first of these, by Nels Anderson,⁷ traced the social antecedents of the area by means of a sociohistorical study from Colonial beginnings up to the 1880's. The second by Salvatore Cimilluca took the development of the area from the 80's to the present day. These two studies provided significant backgrounds for understanding social trends.

⁶The quotation is from a statement prepared by Sydney R. Usher.

⁷Author of *The Hobo: The Sociology of the Homeless Man* (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1923), xv+302 pages; and joint author with Eduard C. Lindeman of *Urban Sociology* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1928), xxxiv+414 pages +xii.

Important to the purpose of the Boys' Club Study was an investigation of delinquency in the area of special study and also a more extensive study of delinquency rates as related to natural areas in the city as a whole. This project, primarily ecological, was undertaken by John E. Jacobi. Juvenile court cases were secured for 1925, 1927, and 1930 and spotted on maps. Delinquency rates were then secured for census tracts by the use of methods similar to those employed by Shaw and his colleagues in Chicago.⁸ These rates were then related to natural areas which were described in terms of significant social and cultural traits. This was necessary in order to determine how rates were changing in areas possessing boys' work facilities and other characteristics the same as or different from those of the boys' club area under special study. The significance of this method is indicated, for example, in a case where delinquency rates would be found declining with equal or greater rapidity in a non-boys' club area, a type of fact which would stimulate further investigation.

A similar study of truant boys on a smaller scale and in a more limited area was undertaken by Edith Mozorosky. In both studies an attempt was made to understand and describe the local and city-wide machinery for dealing with truants and delinquents. More detailed studies of truants and delinquents were undertaken in the area of more intensive study immediately adjacent to a specific boys' club.

It was deemed important to describe and to attempt to estimate to some extent the type of influence of agencies other than the boys' club which might affect the behavior and attitudes of boys' club members and nonmembers and which in this way might condition the work of the club. Social influences in this community, some of a wholesome and others possibly of a demoralizing type, were studied, therefore, either incidentally to other studies or as special projects. Rather complete studies have been undertaken

⁸See Clifford R. Shaw, *Delinquency Areas* (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1929), xxi + 214 pages.

of commercialized and public recreation, the churches, the Boy Scouts, the social settlements, a girls' club unit, the agencies and institutions of adult education, and the nationality heritages—all in one particular boys' club area.

The study of commercialized recreation, under the direction of Vincent McAloon, included poolrooms, candy stores, dance halls, penny arcades, and burlesque and other theaters exclusive of motion-picture establishments.⁹ The methods of investigation involved enumeration and description of all such institutions in the area of study based upon first-hand observation, interviews, and dictations of superior boys and special investigators.

A limited study of the "big-muscle" activities¹⁰ of a part of the area of intensive study was carried out under the direction of James R. Griffiths. The techniques used included "direct observation, interviews, use of the Ciné Kodak and Kodascope, copying of programs of activities, use of police welfare records, and use of stop watch."¹¹ This study included an investigation of informal play activities as well as of facilities for public recreation.

A thorough study of the religious institutions of the area served by the boys' club unit was made by May Case Marsh. In general this was "a descriptive study of the social function of the church in the modern industrial community, particularly in the interstitial area of the city."¹² Especial emphasis was placed upon a description of the educational activities of these religious institutions.

The ways in which these churches measure up to the needs of the community, to the standards set by the church in general; the ways in which they reflect the nationalities, the activities, the changes taking place in home and economic condi-

⁹The Motion Picture Project of the Boys' Club Study, carried on as a part of a national study under the auspices of the National Motion Picture Research Council and financed by a special grant of \$6,500 from the Payne Fund of New York City, will be fully described in the December issue of *THE JOURNAL* which will be devoted wholly to the methods of the national study under the general chairmanship of Dr. W. W. Charters of Ohio State University. Paul G. Cressey is Associate Director of the Motion Picture Project.

¹⁰"The term *big-muscle activities* as here used is defined as any type of individual or group behavior of the large skeletal muscles, whether organized or unorganized, directed or undirected." From a statement by James R. Griffiths.

¹¹From a statement by James R. Griffiths.

¹²From a statement by May Case Marsh.

tions and in religious beliefs; the turnover in population and in church membership; the differences between the churches and their common elements; the number and sex of members; the church plants, finances, methods used in meeting their objectives and in serving the community, their problems, and the attitudes of young people to the church—all were included in this study.

Dr. Marsh's study included case studies of two churches of Eastern Orthodox denomination, three Jewish synagogues, twenty Protestant churches of different denominations and serving different racial and nationality groups, seven Roman Catholic churches, and one church of the American Catholic faith. The methods of gathering data included direct observation and visitation over a period of a year and one half, extensive interviewing of clergy, staff, church officials, church and Sunday-school members, officers and members of religious organizations, former members, social workers, club members, business men, boys and girls on the streets, and officers of national denominational organizations. Church documents, pamphlets, and other printed matter such as newspaper and magazine articles, and files of the Boys' Club Study were also used.

The descriptive method as employed in this phase of the Boys' Club Study indicates how much insight can be gained into the processes of institutional and community life without the use of mathematical measurement in any refined or elaborate sense.

It is our conviction that descriptive studies of groups, institutions, and communities when combined with adequate analyses are far more revealing of mechanisms, problems, and methods for the solution of problems than purely statistical investigations of the same phenomena.

Harry B. Levy has pointed out that "research in physical science relied upon direct observation, until it had sufficiently formulated qualitative differences to specify the invention of intermediary instruments for quantitatively measuring these differences by indirect observation, its modern method." Investigators in the social field who are dealing with persons, groups, and institutions, as well as communities, make the mistake of attempting to employ indirect observational techniques, experimental or statistical, without suitable instruments for the

measurement of qualitative differences. These "intermediary instruments" which can be used in the field of social science must await the more definite formulation of qualitative differences which depends upon the descriptive and analytical methods as applied in the case study. This end can be achieved only by the "continued collection and classification of directly observed phenomenal facts," since the discovery of mechanisms does not depend upon statistical techniques but upon careful case studies which approximate the experiments of the physical sciences.

The description of a gang, for example, as a characteristic type of social group with characteristic behaviors and the consequent ability to identify such a group are of paramount importance to social control. Correct identification bestows the ability to predict the behavior of the group in a given situation, providing the mechanisms of this type of group behavior have been adequately described and analyzed. Institutions likewise may be described and classified into types which have characteristic forms of development and decline and which display typical behaviors under different sets of conditions. This applies to such social phenomena as schools, churches, families, and economic institutions, as well as to natural areas, communities, and nations.

The methods of description and analysis as applied in the case study have an instructive analogy in the field of medicine where the "clinical research method of directly observing the sick human individual as a complex whole has conclusively demonstrated its scientific validity." Likewise, "the clinical research method of directly observing" the person, group, institution, or community, "sick" or well, is equally valid in the social field. Experimentation and statistical study in social science have thrown relatively little light upon the group, the institution, and the community in their fundamental processes and causal relationships.

A suggestion which has considerable interest both from the practical and scientific points of view is that we establish the sociological guidance clinic for the unadjusted *group, institution, and community* as the best technical instrument for study of social functions and social pathologies. Progress by the use of similar methods in the medical and mental-hygiene fields encourages us to believe that the descriptive method combined with adequate analysis holds greater possibilities at the present time for the development of the social sciences as they deal with groups, institutions, and communities than do the application of inappropriate and misleading mathematical techniques of measurement.¹³

¹³Frederic M. Thrasher, "Some Problems of Sociological Research" (Unpublished manuscript).

Through the coöperation of the Boy Scouts of America, a study begun by E. DeAlton Partridge was carried on by Margaret E. Tilley to determine the nature and extent of boy-scout work in an urban area served by a boys' club unit under investigation. This phase dealt with boy scouting as related to boys' club work in the same district.

Somewhat similar to the study of churches was a descriptive study of social settlements. Caroline W. Leonard made case studies of nine social settlements and community houses in a district served by one of the boys' club units. The methods included direct observation, interviews, and a study of all printed sources available, including annual reports, special surveys, city-wide studies, etc. As in the study of the churches, the insights gained into the life of the community and the social influences playing upon the boys of the area, members of the boys' club and nonmembers alike, were very revealing and constituted an essential supplement to the study of the boys' club itself.

Another important influence upon the attitudes and behaviors of boys is the extent and nature of reading engaged in. A study of this type with reference to the use of the public library was undertaken by Bertha T. Hirshstein. An attempt is being made to investigate a public library serving the same constituency as the boys' club and to discover its rôle in the local community. This has necessitated a study over a period of years of the patrons and types of patrons of the institution and types of books being read. A part of this study is being focused upon delinquents and boys' club members and nonmembers to determine any significant differences in reading interests.

A study closely related to the Boys' Club Study has been undertaken by Marie J. Concistré, who has made a survey of agencies and methods of adult education in the district of a boys' club unit under investigation. Statistics have been gathered with regard to the extent of the work by various agencies and an attempt has been made to check

the list of families in which special adult educational activities have been in progress to determine to what extent they have sons in the boys' club unit. One hundred interviews with families of different types have been carried on in order to determine adult educational needs and activities in such cases.

A very important phase of the Boys' Club Study, all of whose methods are not available for publication at the present time, has been carried on by Leonard Covello, who has had general charge of the investigation of Italian heritages and their interactions with other social influences in several areas served by boys' clubs and boys' work agencies. The purpose of this type of study is to determine the way in which cultural backgrounds condition the success of boys' club and other educational programs. This study has made use of a variety of tests and questionnaires, statistical information, interviews, case studies, the foreign-language press, etc.

Independent of the Boys' Club Study but similar in its general conception is a study of a girls' club. This is important to the Boys' Club Study in its revelation of problems concerning the girls of the area as they are related to boy problems and in relation to the light it will throw upon families which include both boys' club and girls' club members as well as upon families which include boys eligible but not members of the boys' club unit. The following statement has been provided by Annette Perkins, a member of the staff of the girls' club:

Problems of Girls' Clubs in an Interstitial Area

Work on the Boys' Club Study has directed attention towards and helped to develop a study of a girls' club in one of the districts investigated. This girls' club unit was established by the Young Women's Christian Association of the City of New York three years ago following a preliminary study made from April 1927 to December 1928, by its Industrial Department to discover whether the Y. W. C. A. should extend its industrial work to that part of the city. This preliminary study was made in close coöperation with the social agencies in the district who were exceedingly interested from the beginning and unanimously agreed that there was a great need for work

with girls. From the findings of the study, it was recommended that the work be started based on the assumption that the club should be able to help meet the educational and recreational needs of girls in that area.

The total membership of the club over the three-year period is 606, which included an age range for 15 to 24 years. The area as defined by the district from which the girls' club members are drawn includes about 22,400 girls between the ages of 15 and 24. Membership has necessarily been limited by the physical facilities of the club which consist of four medium-sized rooms in a tenement house which is adequate for only small group activity. Provision is made for the use of gymnasium and swimming pool elsewhere.

After three years of experience in the community, the club recognized the many difficulties in trying to build a program without more scientific knowledge of the problems of the girls. Due to the traditional Italian concept of family life, a part of which is strict parental control of the daughter, the latter is not allowed to participate in the social life of the wider community. There arises a conflict between the standards of conduct set up by her family group and those which a girl becomes inevitably conscious of in her contact with the outside world.

The purpose of the present study is to determine what are the problems of these girls and how the club can build its program to meet the resultant types of behavior. It is evident that it is necessary to study the whole girl in the total situation.

The Boys' Club Study has already secured much valuable information concerning the area which not only was used in the preliminary study, but will also be used to supplement the findings of the present study of the Girls' Club, which will attempt to set forth such facts as have not already been covered. These will include materials on certain social facts, community influences, and relationships pertaining to girls and the club.

To discover these facts, a number of case histories of the girls are being collected. Here an attempt is being made to secure the girl's own story of her life in the area. Interviews with parents, girls, and other agency workers will be added. There will also be records of spontaneous expressions and observations gathered by leaders working in the district. The investigation will include statistical and ecological studies of members and nonmembers of the club in relation to delinquency.

A study of housing by Margaret B. Gerard will consider the social implications of housing in a boys' club area. A study of the family status of boys' club members and nonmembers has been undertaken by Edwin L. Huntley.

BOOK REVIEWS

Experimental Social Psychology, by GARDNER MURPHY.
New York: Harper and Brothers, 1931, 709 pages.

A résumé of all recent experimental literature relevant to social behavior and the effect of social experiences upon the development of personality. Organized in three parts: basic principles—biology of motives, nature and nurture, learning process in social situations; a genetic study of social behavior—methods of studying social behavior in children, development of social behavior in early childhood, social behavior in later childhood and adolescence; general laws of social interaction—individual in the group situation, cooperating group, an introduction to measurement of personality, social attitudes and their measurement. Hundreds of experiments are abstracted and analyzed. Extraordinarily fine annotated bibliography. An indispensable reference book for all students of the social sciences.

Principles of Guidance, by ARTHUR J. JONES. New York:
McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1930, 385 pages.

An excellent discussion of the aims and methods of guidance in the secondary school. Particularly valuable to the average counselor and administrator are the materials dealing with the study of the individual and the organization of guidance. While guidance towards an ultimate vocational adjustment is the central theme, the treatment shows the influence of the broader mental-hygiene conception of guidance. An outstanding book in its field.

The Dissatisfied Worker, by V. E. FISHER and JOSEPH V.
HANNA. New York: Macmillan Company, 1931,
259 pages.

An interesting approach to vocational guidance from the mental-hygiene point of view. Analyzes cases of vocational maladjustment, emphasizing the rôle of emotional attitudes and personality traits, considering vocational adjustment as a personality-social situation relationship rather than an aptitude-testing job-analysis problem. Healthy antidote to current emphasis in vocational guidance.

Courses and Careers, by RALPH P. GALLAGHER. New
York: Harper and Brothers, 1930, 404 pages.

Designed to meet the requirements for a junior- or senior-high-school guidance course, with references, notebook assignments, and questions for oral discussion. The lessons are grouped under 99 units: self-development 7, educational opportunities 21, choosing an occupation 9, skilled and unskilled labor 10, agriculture, mining, and forestry 4,

transportation 5, industries 3, commerce 13, government 4, professions 15, homemaking and allied occupations 8.

Psychological Service for School Problems, by GERTRUDE H. HILDRETH. New York: World Book Company, 1930, 378 pages.

A manual for the school psychologist; administration of tests; study of individual pupil; diagnostic and remedial work; pupil classification; guidance; records, reports, organization of psychological service, bibliography of books and articles; bibliography of selected tests and scales. An excellent compendium which should be useful to all school psychologists, particularly those who are beginners. One of the Measurement and Adjustment Series, edited by Terman.

Diagnostic and Remedial Teaching, by LEO J. BRUECKNER and ERNEST O. MELBY. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1931, 598 pages.

The use of diagnostic tests and remedial teaching in the treatment of subject-matter failure. Chapters are devoted to arithmetic, reading, language, spelling, writing, the social studies, character education, and health education. A book that meets a long-felt need, probably the best in its field. One of the Riverside Textbooks in Education, edited by Cubberley.

Administration of Pupil Personnel, by ARCH O. HECK. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1929, 479 pages.

The work of the attendance department and its relationship to educational policy and school program. Among the topics discussed are: compulsory education, the attendance department, pupil-personnel records, the school census, reporting to parents, age-grade-progress studies, school failure, school marks, classification of pupils, child labor. An excellent manual for attendance officers and administrators of attendance departments.

Child Health and the Community, by COURTENAY DINWIDDIE. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1931, 80 pages.

A discussion of four community demonstrations of a child-health program by the Commonwealth Fund (Fargo, N. D., Athens, Ga., Rutherford County, Tenn., and Marion County, Ore.). Of interest to those concerned with public-health programs, and to teachers of health education in training schools and schools of education.

The Diagnosis of Health, by WILLIAM R. P. EMERSON.
New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1930, 272
pages.

The diagnosis of health and training for physical fitness, with special reference to the college man and to instruction for optimum health in the normal individual. Interesting discussion of family stock and personal history vs. the height-weight table as the basis of interpreting the relation of age-height-weight to health and physical efficiency.

The Social Worker in Child Care and Protection, by MARGARETTA WILLIAMSON. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1931, 485 pages.

The third volume of the job-analysis series of the American Association of Social Workers. An analysis of the qualifications for, requirements for, and activities involved in positions in children's aid organizations, children's institutions, day nurseries, and children's protective societies. One of Harper's Social Science Series, edited by Chapin.

Public Health Organization. Report of the White House Conference, Committee on Public Health Organization, E. L. Bishop, M.D., Chairman. New York: The Century Company, 1932, 345 pages.

The administration of public health, Federal, State, and local, urban and rural; control of communicable diseases; types of public-health activity and personnel; training of public-health personnel; public-health and other social and legislative programs. Excellent compendium for public-health officers and for university courses in public-health administration and health education. One of the Century series of publications of the White House Conference reports.

Organization for the Care of Handicapped Children. Report of the White House Conference Committee on National, State, and Local Organization for the Handicapped, Kate Burr Johnson, Chairman. New York: The Century Company, 1932, 365 pages.

Trends in the care of handicapped children; history and administration of local public units; State organization—organization and equipment of departments, direct care, supervision of institutions and agencies, educational publicity, interstate problems; the Federal Government and child welfare—services of departments, relationship of national and local agencies. One of the Century series of publications of the White House Conference reports.

Farm Children, by BIRD T. BALDWIN, EVA ABIGAIL FILLMORE, and LORA HADLEY. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1930, 337 pages.

A first comprehensive survey of a rural child population. Environment of farm children—community and home, social and economic factors, rural schools; life of farm children—characteristics of farm children, activities, advantages and disadvantages; physical and mental development of farm children—physical welfare of mother and child, physical condition of school children, mental development, educational achievement, and talents of farm children. Indispensable to State administrators, and to university teachers of rural sociology and rural education.

Religion in Human Affairs, by CLIFFORD KIRKPATRICK. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1929, 530 pages.

The origin of religious attitudes and beliefs, their forms in early societies, their history and development in the Western world, their change under the impact of modern life. The effect of religion on the individual's personality, on his actions in daily life. The conflict between religion and science—the cultural conflict of values, and the conflict of attitudes within the individual. A sociological rather than theological approach, considering religion as a cultural pattern rather than as creed or dogma. Recommended to all students of religious education and to all intelligent laymen.

Executive Experiences through Activity Units, by LUCY W. CLOUSER, WILMA J. ROBINSON, and DENA L. NEELY. New York: Lyons and Carnahan, 1932, 352 pages.

Teachers concerned with the setting up of an activity program will find this book useful in several ways. Part one deals with the principles underlying the activity program, emphasizing the choice of activities which are based upon the interests and needs of each particular group. Parts two and three deal with a series of activities actually carried on by children, showing the origin of the activity and its development with its opportunities for growth in character, and subject matter, with suggested activities, which might grow from the activity described. Helpful bibliographies close each chapter.

BOOKS RECEIVED

American Social Psychology, by Karpf. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

Beginning of the Social Sciences, by Reed and Wright. Series on Childhood Education. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons

190 *The Journal of Educational Sociology*

- Civilization and Society*, by Giddings. New York: Henry Holt and Company
- Dark Places of Education*, by Schohaus. New York: Henry Holt and Company
- Education for Home and Family Life*, Part I. Publication of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. New York: The Century Company
- Educations of Political Citizenship*, by Snedden. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University
- Growth and Development of the Child*, Part IV. Publication of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. New York: The Century Company
- Incidence of Work Shortage*, by Hogg. New York: Russell Sage Foundation
- Lads' Clubs*, by Russell and Russell. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- Language and Languages*, by Graff. New York: D. Appleton and Company
- Readings in Educational Sociology*, by Payne. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Responsibility*, by Sears. New York: Columbia University Press
- Sociology of Teaching*, by Waller. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.
- Studies in the Dynamics of Behavior*, edited by Lashley. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press
- Working Manual for Juvenile Court Officers*, by Riley. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

PROGRAM FOR THE SECTION ON EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY OF THE AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY AT THE DECEMBER MEETING IN CINCINNATI

I. *First Session*

Chairman, Walter R. Smith, University of Kansas
The Field of Educational Sociology

David Snedden, Teachers College, Columbia University
Research Techniques in Educational Sociology

Charles C. Peters, Pennsylvania State College
Discussion

II. *Second Session*

Chairman, Charles C. Peters, Pennsylvania State College
Training in the Uses of Leisure

George A. Lundberg, Columbia University
Attendance at a Negro Elementary School as Conditioned by
Home Environment

Alice L. Taylor, Washington University
Personality Changes in Practice Teachers
Willard Waller, Pennsylvania State College

CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

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Dr. O. Myking Mehus received the A.B. degree from Augsburg College, the A.M. from the University of North Dakota, and the Ph.D. from the University of Minnesota. His research project at the University of Minnesota, which was published by the University of Minnesota Press in 1929, consisted of an intensive study of the extra-curricular activities of the students in that institution. Dr. Mehus is now connected with the State Teachers College at Maryville, Missouri.

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Professor Arthur J. Todd received the degree of Litt.B. from the University of California and the Ph.D. from Yale in 1911. He has been connected with Northwestern University since 1919. Dr. Todd is the author of the following: *The Primitive Family as an Educational Agency*, *The Scientific Spirit and Social Work*, *Theories of Social Progress*, *Democracy and Reconstruction*, and *Secularization of Domestic Relations*.

Mr. P. Ju Volobner is a Russian author and student of sociology.

